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ABSTRACT

The relationship between centrally stated educational aims and those really in use at the classroom level is addressed. A critical review is presented of what has been achieved in this area, especially in Finland, both within legislation and by recent researchers. According to the authors, the lists of educational aims produced by policy-makers as well as those constructed by researchers evidently do not render any purposive whole. The role of stated aims, especially the behavioral ones, has been exaggerated and selection of teaching methods have not been considered by either policy-makers or investigators. The fact that stated aims have no significant impact on the teacher's planning activity has, when operating with lists of stated aims, been given almost no consideration. The differences in the teachers' general basic views and pedagogical outlooks have been given minor consideration. A prerequisite for arranging more purposive instruction is that the teacher is able and has the right to modify the stated aims, and also to set individual aims on the basis of personal beliefs and convictions. Corresponding arrangements regarding both teacher education and school administration are needed. (Author/JD)

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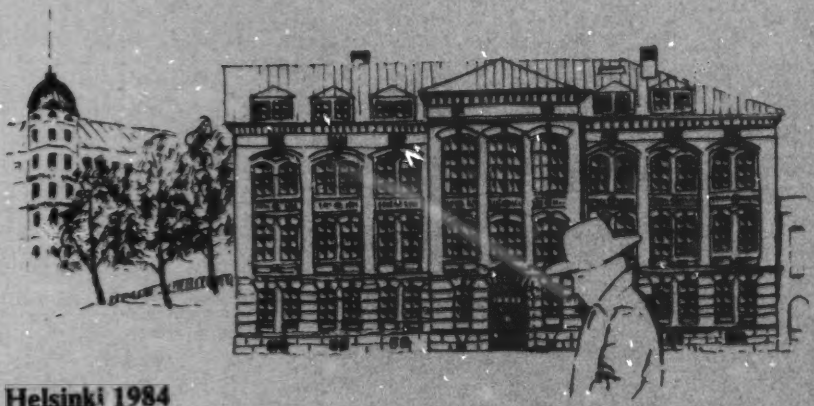
RESEARCH REPORT 25

Department of Teacher Education
University of Helsinki

Matti Koskenniemi

EDUCATIONAL AIMS AND THE PURPOSIVENESS OF INSTRUCTION

Skeptical Talks



Helsinki 1984

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RESEARCH REPORT 25

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In an article, published in 1977, I complained about the fact that the Finnish research into educational aims had almost without exception dealt with stated aims only. I argued that such general aims will be realized only if there are teachers and students who want to accept and put them into action in their everyday work. Statements concerning aims without taking their implementation into account are and remain empty from the didactical point of view. I claimed, therefore, that it would be important to investigate factual aims set up and implemented within the classroom walls.

Despite the fact that the bulk of research into educational aims has continued to be in the area of stated aims, it has been a gratifying experience to note that the point of view I suggested in 1977 has been taken into consideration in a number of recent investigations.

The subtitle "Skeptical talks" for this paper refers to the fact that it is, in the first hand, a critical and methodological review of what has hitherto been achieved in this area.

I express my gratitude to Professor Pertti Kansanen, Dr. Juhani Jussila, Professor Jukka Lehtinen, Professor Taimo Iisalo and Mr. Jaakko Numminen, Secretary General, Ministry of Education, for fruitful discussions regarding this topic. I also thank Johannes Paasonen, Lic. Ph., for checking my English.

Matti Koskenniemi
December 1983

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A Terminological Note

The terms "aim", "goal", and "objective" are, in educational literature, used in a great variety of contexts and inconsistently. They are all employed to denote some end product of educational activity, what the students (or other persons) are expected to do, or what personality traits (or what readiness or competence) the student has attained as the result of schooling.

"Aim" and "goal" refer to persons. "Aim" denotes what the student (or other person) wishes or wants to do, or is expected to do - it is a functional concept. "Goal", in turn, denotes some end product.

"Objective" is mostly used to denote some arrangement or process in school life, expected to promote the development of readiness or competence of the student in a certain prescribed way. "Objective" can be labelled as an instrumental concept. "Aim" and "goal", on the other hand, are directed immediately at the behavior of individuals. "Objectives" can consequently be seen as means for attaining the "aims" and "goals".

In this paper I have preferred the term "(educational) aim", except in cases where certain measures are dealt with and the term "objective" is more appropriate. My argument is that the educative process is intended to promote development which is realized through stages, and the direction of this development is more important than the "goals" attained at any time.

PROLOGUE: THE ROLE OF AIMS IN PLANNING INSTRUCTION

The recent investigations on educational aims have, at least in Finland, had various points of departure. They have also concentrated on many kind of problems, i.a., on the following:

- what are the aims that should be determined for school education
- where should these aims be derived from
- how should they be composed to form a systematic, well-balanced entity
- what are the roles of policy-makers, central and local administration, teachers, local populace, and pupils in planning and implementing the system of aims
- how should educational aims be expressed and mediated to the teachers in order to have them realized in practice
- if there are any aims personally accepted by the teachers, how are they generated and put into effect.

The last three of these problems are the particular target for this paper. They seem to be most pertinent in such school systems in which, as in the Nordic countries, in France, and in the socialist countries, there exists a more or less centralized, official curriculum, based on general educational aims stated in school law.

The question of the relationship between centrally stated aims and those really practised at the class level is a complicated one. It can be considered either from the organizational point of view or with the reality of school education as the point of departure. With regard to the former aspect, the following line of thought may emanate: "If the hero is the political decision-maker, who adjusts his limited resources to his clear and stable goal, the scapegoat is the individual who, by means of his intentions and actions, prevents the goal from being

realized" (Lindensjö & Lundgren 1983). Such an allegory is, however, oversimplified, and also biased, because aims included in the official documents are seldom clear. Attacking the question from the other direction is, on the other hand, also problematic because the teacher's actions seem to be influenced by aims, either official or personal, to a much lesser extent than is usually supposed.

How the educational aims put up by policy decisions are attained in practice depends, first, on certain frame factors, e.g., the environment and administration of the schools, the learning material at disposal, and the professional level of teachers but, on the other hand, also on to what extent the centrally stated aims are in agreement with those accepted and adopted by teachers.

The effects of the frame factors on achieving officially stated educational aims are disregarded in the following. This paper attempts, instead, to concentrate on the latter problem, to which investigations concerning educational aims have paid only minor attention.

However, research into the implementation of the official system of aims, i.e., the evaluation of the stated aims by using learning results as criteria, remains a hopeless attempt without knowing the role of these aims in the process of instruction. Information about this role has until now been very meagre, because it has mainly been based on the opinions of teachers (and other persons involved in school life) about those aims, not on empirical facts about how they have been functioning in practice.

The intense activity for reforming the whole educational system of Finland during the '60s and '70s has brought with it efforts to renew the aims of school education, carried out by

both policy-makers and researchers. Also in Sweden the problem of aims has been the target of a number of interesting investigations. This paper is mainly based on Finnish material which has been supplemented by views presented and results attained in Sweden and elsewhere.

PART ONE: CONSTRUCTING A SYSTEM OF STATED AIMS

Chapter 1: Educational Aims in Legislation

School law texts concerning the purpose of schooling are, at least in Western democracies, usually a result of negotiations within political committees or other agencies and between parties, and therefore a compromise.

In how much detail the purpose is expressed in the legislation, i.e., what specific behaviors are to be expected in the children and youth subjected to schooling, varies from one country to another. In some cases the educational aims are defined in a few words only and in general terms, the details being left to be given in lower-level decrees, by central school authorities or even at the local level. On the other hand there are school laws with detailed statements regarding the educational aims.

The Finnish Elementary School Act (in force from 1921 to 1968) and the Swedish School Law of 1962 belong to the former category, the new Finnish School Laws of 1983 (to be dealt with later) to the latter.

In the Finnish legislation of 1921 the purpose of school education was defined by stating that "the school shall, in cooperation with homes, educate the students into morality and good manners as well as provide them with the knowledge and skills necessary for life". The corresponding paragraph in the Swedish School Law reads as follows: "The purpose of the public instruction of children and youth is to provide the students knowledge and skills and, in cooperation with their homes, to promote the students' development into harmonious individuals as well as into able and responsible members of the society".

In both cases more detailed suggestions or instructions were given in official curricula (in Finland 1925 and 1952, both intended to serve as guides; in Sweden several with binding character). The main educational aim presented in the Finnish curriculum of 1952 was the development of personality, individually and socially. A number of more specific aims were then defined, either in general terms or in the context of subject-matter areas. - In the Swedish curriculum for the comprehensive school of 1980 more detailed educational aims are derived from the short definition of the purpose of schooling included in the law: "The comprehensive school is a part of the society. The curriculum reflects the democratic, societal and human view of life: Man is an active and creative being who can and should take responsibility and seek knowledge in order to in cooperation with others, comprehend and improve his own conditions of life and those of other people; the school shall provide the students with increasing responsibility and shared influence according to their age and maturity.

"One of the main tasks for the school is to provide that the students acquire good knowledge and skills. In the school and in cooperation with homes, shall the students' eagerness to work, as well as good study and leisure-time habits and a democratic way of functioning to be stimulated. Knowledge, skills, norms and values shall not only be transferred by the school from one generation to the next but also developed in an active way".

It is easily seen that the societal role of school education has in Sweden overshadowed the individual one. The same direction of development can be observed also in Finland beginning from the end of the '60s. In the Comprehensive School Act (1968) educational aims are not mentioned at all. Instead, the Curriculum Committee for the Comprehensive School which pre-

sented its report in 1970 dealt thoroughly with the problem of aims.

The comprehensive school should, according to this committee, prepare a basis for the development of children and youth into cultural persons who are able to acquire a universal cultural capital, who have adopted a capacity to cooperate with other people, and who have developed into well-balanced, independent and critical personalities. In defining specific aims the committee chose as a starting point the psychological view that the development of the students takes place under reciprocal influence of the social environment and the surrounding culture.

In defining educational aims, attention was paid on the one hand to the main dimensions of personality structure (cognitive, affective, psychomotor) and, on the other hand, to the generally esteemed areas of culture and society (science, art, ethics, physical culture, the structure of society) which the students should have contact with (Takala 1970). The comprehensive school has to build the ground on which a young person can be developed into a cultural being with the following traits: 1) he/she is able to adopt a universal cultural capital, 2) he/she has been grown up to cooperation with other people and 3) he/she has developed into a solid, independent and critical personality. Accordingly, the main areas of aims were defined as follows: care of the biology of man; cognitive education; the ethical and social aims of education; religious education; education of manual work and practical skills; and the integration of the whole personality and mental health.

Annika Takala, a member of this committee, has dealt (1973) with the values behind educational aims and their relationships with the problems met in the development of society. She states that the setting up and realization of the curriculum

is not possible on a pedagogical basis only. Attention should also be paid to the question of who sets the aims. Takala argues that experts used in curriculum planning should have a broad view of society and of the problems of the whole world.

Ulf Sundqvist, Minister of Education during 1972-75 and secretary of the Social Democratic Party (1975-81), has stressed the socio-political objectives of education (1973). According to him, two objectives are most important when a social policy which aims at increased democracy, social progress, and equality is followed: Implementing such reforms of the comprehensive school system which increase equality, and a reform of the subject-matter as well as of the transition from the comprehensive school to higher education.

Iisalo (1982) has noted that the basic outlines for the comprehensive school curriculum in Finland were agreed upon in the '60s. Until that time, the main ideological background philosophy, the educational theory, was provided by the so-called formal educational theories, emphasized by the reform pedagogics of the early 20th century, combined with a humanistic concept of man. But in the '70s decisions have been made which have reduced the dominant role of the formal theories and corroborated the position of materialistic theories which value the amount of knowledge. This significant shift in educational theory has involved changes in the underlying concept of man providing the background of the curriculum.

Iisalo was not wrong in pointing out that new materialistic theories had reduced the dominance of formal educational theories during the '60s and the '70s. But this is true only with regard to a very active phalanx of persons representing left-wing school policy and holding temporarily influential positions in the power structure. These politicians were also supported by the National Federation of High School Students

which at that time represented socialistic and marxist ideology. What Iisalo in his conclusions has not paid attention to is the politically narrow ground on which the new radical school policy actually rested.

The old Finnish school laws were codified during 1976-79 in order to prepare a basis for a new legislation. In this context, also a great number of opinions and memoranda were gathered. The new school laws were planned in detail during 1979-81 by a working group composed of officials in the central administration and chaired by Mr. Jaakko Numminen, Secretary General, Ministry of Education (permanent under secretary of education) (Numminen 1982; an interview 1983). Needless to say, the members of this group had a political background.

The task of this group was to prepare a proposal for the new school law to be submitted to Parliament. This proposal, and especially its arguments, reflects to a minor extent only the new educational ideology mentioned by Iisalo.

According to what the government proposed to the Parliament, the compulsory nine-year comprehensive school should provide a basic general education for every future citizen. The aims toward which school education should be directed are mentioned in paragraph 2. (The Senior Secondary School Act proposed at the same time prescribes the aims in the same way.)

In that paragraph there is, first, listed a number of aims for the education of students. The qualities or behaviors that the student as an individual and as a member of the society shall be educated to possess are: a balanced personality, good physical condition, responsibility, self-dependence, cooperativeness, and will to act for peace.

The paragraph includes also the aims stated in the previous Elementary School Act of 1921: The school shall educate the students "into morality and good manners as well as provide them with the knowledge and skills necessary for life".

In addition, the paragraph prescribes that the school is obliged to arrange its activities in such a way that certain trends in the student's development are improved. It refers to a many-sided personality, readiness to take part in the life of society and the labour force, readiness to choose an occupation and pursue further studies, readiness to support the national culture as well as to international cooperation, and to improve the equality between sexes.

These numerous aims had been presented already by the Curriculum Committee in 1970. Also the aims from the old legislation were mentioned in that report.

According to Numminen, his group adopted as main planning principles 1) to present aims which were acceptable by all groups of society including parents, teachers, and students, and 2) to tie the comprehensive school to the traditional aims as defined in the old legislation.

The group did not totally disregard the societal aims which were held in the highest esteem by the radical ideology, although care for the individual stands highest in the proposal. The readiness of the individual to operate in the society is also an aim more important than supporting the development of the society as such by means of developing the social sector of the student's personality. Societal reforms included in the proposal comprise only some changes in school administration, in the grouping of students, and in the way the curriculum is planned and implemented. None of these changes are reflected in the over-all aims of school education vis-à-vis the indi-

vidual student.

Why was the new educational ideology prevailing during the '70s not reflected in the proposed new school law? The following explanations can be suggested. Although the group which planned the proposition consisted of officials with a political background, it seems that people in such a position are politically less involved than active politicians. Neither did the fact that Finland at that time had a majority government with the Conservatives in opposition, and that this party was to a very small extent represented among higher school officials, seemingly have had any influence. A kind of cautiousness and impartiality was evidently characteristic of the members of the working group. Moreover, the radical leftist ideology had already lost some of its strength and vigor during the last years of the '70s.

In addition, it should be mentioned that the propositions for the new laws were approved in the Parliament practically unanimously. The Committee for Cultural Affairs had, however, made some rather minor amendments to the list of educational aims (e.g., preserving the living and natural environment, and readiness to support national values). These amendments were due to the endeavor to bring about a compromise in the wording that all parties could accept.

Chapter 2: Educational Aims in the New Finnish Legislation: A Scrutiny

The list of aims in the government's proposition for the new school laws, and also in the final law text, is exceptionally long. The chairman of the group which prepared the proposal has admitted that he had a disinclination for such a multitude of aims in the law text although they, considering the

prevailing debate, could be seen as "just and up-to-date" (Numminen 1982, 23). He argued, however, that these many aims might "in the view of contemporary citizens function as a means for defining the direction in which the comprehensive school should be developed".

This list is not only long but consists of rather loose statements which in some cases overlap or even contradict each other. One could, indeed, counter such criticism by remarking that the local school administration will have, according to the new legislation, more freedom than earlier in planning the curriculum. The collection of aims in the law can therefore be seen as a kind of à la carte.

No well-balanced purpose emerges from a list of many loose aims, however. Already in 1936 W. H. Kilpatrick dealt with the question about atomistic versus global system of educational aims. In "Remarking the Curriculum" he wrote (pp. 108-115), i.a.:

"In the most of the older discussions on curriculum making we find attention mainly centered, at least ultimately, on specific items of knowledge, skills, habits, and the like, that pupils should acquire. And commonly these objectives have been discussed as if each such item could and does exist, and can be considered, in and of itself as a distinct and separate affair."
And further:
"--- this older view considered learning as the acquisition of subject-matter-set-out-to-be-learned and educational objectives as more or less self-existent atoms which were to be learned, and held for later use, in some logical order of arrangement."

Kilpatrick rejected this atomistic and static view of aims

and instead set forth "dynamic objectives inherently related to life as a progress and therefore to natural and useful learning". He did not of course belittle matters of knowledge, skill, and habit but argued that what is learned is learned in dynamic and meaningful connections, both immediate and remote, as to constitute far more valuable learning.

In this connection it is useful to recollect Kilpatrick's doctrine of educational aims which can be condensed as follows:

1) Let us think, not generally or primarily, in terms of specific facts or skills, but rather in terms of growing, that present activities shall lead on fruitfully to further, finer, and better activities.

2) Let us work, as a rule, not for single items, but rather work for ideals which in the degree that they are got will of themselves then take care of items.

3) Let us work to build dynamic interests.

4) From the social and moral point of view, what we are to work for is ever more adequate self-direction, self-direction of the individual as we work with each child, self-direction of the group as we work with classes, i.e., ever better acting on thinking.

Also Takala (1978), when examining the long lists of aims produced by Finnish investigations prior to Numminen's group, complained that in preparing such lists the over-all view of the student's development which was presented by the Curriculum Committee of 1970 was totally overlooked. She characterized this way of setting aims as a verbal play with loose statements of separate aims as pieces. The teacher cannot accept or reject such small items without paying attention to broader value tendencies as entities with strict inner consistency.

Numminen has admitted that one of the weaknesses of his working group was that no expertise in the field of the theory of education was represented among its members. This seems to be the reason why the logical line of thought is missing in the proposed text. Any systematic philosophical reasoning of what ends the listed aims are serving for it not presented. Neither was attention paid to the study of social and psychological processes which is of value in defining the educational aims (Takala 1978).

Even if a theoretical frame of reference for the setting of aims was not built up, it could have been expected that the numerous separate items would have been presented in some order of preference. No such ranking exists; e.g. a "many-sided personality" is mentioned as an aim of equal standing with all the separate traits of this personality.

Aims can direct educative actions only when they are clear and unambiguous. They should indicate markedly what kind of behavior is expected from the students, or in what kind of situations the implementation of aims is to be carried out. Defining aims in this way or some other is understandably a job for curriculum designers ultimately, not for legislators. But if a long list of aims is preferred in the law text, the items should be expressed in operational terms. "Readiness to international cooperation" or "creativity" as aims are rather diffuse and can be comprehended in several ways.

As mentioned earlier, the preparation of the curriculum is, at least partly, to be carried out at the municipal level according to the new legislation. The proposal states that local activity in these matters promotes acceptance of the curriculum, and adapting and reshaping it for local needs. It is presupposed that educational aims are in general acceptable, so that the majority of parents, teachers and even students

can approve of them. This majority principle hides the fact that an individual teacher usually has his own view of life and accordingly also his own value system which guides the selection or at least the ranking of officially presented educational aims, perhaps resulting in a controversy between the teacher's views and those officially prescribed. That this possibility has not been dealt with in the proposition indicates that the realization of stated aims has not been considered problematic. That these aims could fail to influence the instructional process because of such a discrepancy is a possibility not mentioned in the proposal.

In preparing the proposal the common axiom has been adopted that educational aims, either officially stated or the teacher's own, have a decisive influence on the instructional processes in classrooms. This, however, is not true as had been demonstrated by investigations carried out, and published, both in Finland and abroad prior to the preparation of the proposal. It had evidently not been grasped by the working group that this possibility might result in the failure of the prescribed aims to be realized in the classrooms. The central planning authority for the educational processes seems to be unable to look at the things from the point of view of those persons who have to implement the results of the planning.

The problems presented briefly above will be considered in the following chapters in more detail. Some results of investigations into the stated educational aims and their implementation will also be discussed.

Chapter 3: Investigations on Centrally Prescribed Aims

A number of investigations concerning the selection of educational aims and the system they should be integrated into have

been carried out in Finland since the early '70s. These studies differ considerably from each other with regard to their origin and design. Some are based on a philosophy, or philosophies, of education or on a political creed. In others the so-called consensus principle has been invoked: The views of the majority of experts or other people has been used as the basis for the selection of aims. A system of aims has also been built up on the results of research into the instructional processes and learning as well as on personality psychology.

The well-known research on taxonomies of the educational objectives (the cognitive domain: Bloom et al. 1956; the affective domain: Krathwohl et al. 1964; the psychomotor domain: Harrow 1972), stimulated by an awareness that many operations with regard to the curriculum and evaluation are ineffective because of the ambiguity and vagueness of concepts concerning the aims of teaching, have had an impact on Finnish research into these aims. The classification of student behaviors as a ready-made hierarchy of aims, expressed in terms of the intended outcomes of schooling has been used in one form or another. Other starting points have been furnished by the structure of intellectual ability, presented by Guilford, and the system of operations developed by Aschner and Gallagher (1965).

Some of these Finnish investigations have led to results published before the preparation of the new legislation described in the previous two chapters was completed. However, one cannot observe any impact of this research on the report of the working group, except of those which used the consensus strategy.

3.1 Selection and Systematical Composition of Aims

According to Hakkarainen educational aims should be expressed in a way that clearly defines what the student is expected to do. He has therefore carried out a transformation of all aims presented in the report of the Curriculum Committee for the Comprehensive school of 1970 into behavioral ones (1971a), and also paid attention to the discrepancy between general aims and those prescribed for the subject-matter areas (1971b). In order to build up a taxonomy which would cover all these aims (N = 341), irrespective of the schooling level, he has grouped them according to their content. The following classification has resulted (frequencies of separate aims in brackets):

- aesthetic aims (14)
- ethical and social aims (68)
- aims concerning information (75)
- cognitive aims (55)
- aims concerning study habits (54)
- aims concerning health (30)
- aims concerning orientation to environment (22)
- societal aims (53)
- unspecified aims (2).

Such a classification is, however, hardly more than a crude mapping. The author has also noted that it does not comprise all areas of importance for the development of the personality. But he has not paid any attention to the fact that aims inevitably exist simultaneously in many situations, and that this is also desirable. By counting separate items as units their global structure cannot be grasped.

Starting from the view that learning contents are intermediary between the aims and the teaching process, and that broad areas of aims can be attained only if they are broken down into more specific aims, Hakkarainen has later (1972; 1973;

and 1977) revealed a rather materialistic concept of instruction. According to this, e.g., the exclusion of aims which are to be attained by means of some kind of interactive organization of instruction without including specific subject-matter improves the instruction. He also has stressed the importance of the setting aims in detail and planning their implementation, and argued that every stated aim should guide the teacher's actions.

Hakkarainen belongs to the political phalanx which advocates radical changes in the Finnish society and that these should, accordingly, be reflected in the aims prescribed for the school system. He has therefore emphasized strongly that the demands of societal development must be taken into account in connection with the school reform. His view that subject-matter contents play a major role in the definition of educational aims clearly reflects an influence of marxist educational theory according to which the starting point in constructing a curriculum is knowledge and skills to be learned by the student in order to master reality (1977).

On the other hand, Hakkarainen seems to be aware of the importance of studying how the prescribed aims direct the teaching-learning processes. He has, however, not discussed this problem from the point of view of the individual teacher who might have personal beliefs which differ from the official policy.

In order to define the aims of schooling, Niskanen (1973) had quite a different starting-point. According to him, the educational aims should first be expressed and systematized on the basis of primary factors of human behavior. After that the aims within different subject-matter areas are to be examined by using the above-mentioned system of general aims as a background. Out of the aims emanating from separate investigations concerning the different subject-matter areas, the general

dimensions of the specific aims should then be sought by using factor analysis. These dimensions finally should be compared with the dimensions of the original system of general aims. The "Research Project on Educational Aims" has, however, not been completed (Niskanen et al. 1982).

The list of general aims (N = 40) was composed by selecting items concerning cognitive and psychomotor operations according to Bloom and Guilford and items from the affective domain, partly by using Krathwohl's taxonomy, partly by selecting aims presented by the Comprehensive School Curriculum of 1970 and the Elementary School Curriculum of 1952. The items were compiled to a list in a rather eclectic way without having any uniting principle to bring them to a global whole.

In the first phase of this project, the subjects participating in the setting of aims were officials in the county school administration (N = 94). They also rated the importance of each item for students between the ages 7 to 18. In order to obtain a clustering, the acquired statements were subjected to a factor analysis which produced a structure with factors that did not clearly differentiate between the behavioral areas of the list of aims. Niskanen has noted (Op.cit., 28) that "the cognitive area is more differentiated than the affective one, though part of the integration of personality is connected with intelligence".

In the second, incompleted phase of this project (Niskanen et al. 1982) Guilford's structure of personality and the taxonomies of Bloom and Krathwohl are used as a theoretical framework. Societal considerations are, on the other hand, totally absent.

The investigations have, instead, had subjectbound aims as their target, and attempts have been made to discover their

central dimensions by having teachers rate the importance of these aims. From the results of the few subjectbound investigations which have been completed it was possible to draw some conclusions (Op.cit., 103-105).

The fact that the traditional aims of different school subjects are not based on any particular theoretical framework is seen as a factor which makes it difficult to proceed in this kind of research. On the other hand, a critic cannot avoid remarking that the original list of general educational aims presented by Niskanen can hardly be considered to have any educational theory as its starting point.

Kyöstiö and Luukkonen (1974; 1976) have concentrated their research into how the educational aims are defined in general. A sample of professors of education, administrative personnel at central and county level, teachers and student teachers (total N = 107), were presented with an open questionnaire with, i.a., following questions:

- where in your opinion should education derive its aims from
- essential concepts in establishing educational aims or objectives
- by whom should the aims in education be defined and set up
- should greater emphasis be placed on, say, knowledge and skills than on ideas, manners and habits
- the role of education in a changing society compared with other factors influencing society.

The collected statements were grouped into three main categories: 1) the purpose of education, 2) the basis of the aims, and 3) the agents who define the aims. The answers were investigated by using content analysis which produced, in the first stage, the following ten dimensions:

conservative - radical
political-minded - political-rejective
creative - traditional
supportive - dominant
cognitive - affective
national-minded - international-minded
democratic - authoritarian
ideological - critical
research-minded - non-research-minded
emphasizing family's role - belittling family's role.

Answers were analyzed on the basis of these dimensions by taking the whole set of answers of each subject as a unit. A factor analysis of this material revealed two factors, expressive - instrumental and individual - social, which well characterized the different opinions that the subjects had in mind with regard to the general aims of education.

The authors argued that an analytical survey based on the philosophy of education is able to depict only the basic dimensions for and the nature of human activity, and that the aims obtained in this way remain at a very general level. On the other hand, taxonomic regulations are suitable for very specific areas of aims only. With regard to the general aims such taxonomies can hardly offer any basis for setting aims. Empirical research into aims may present useful information in methodological matters, but it cannot give solutions to questions concerning the order of importance among the aims.

A final factor analysis of opinions produced by the subjects revealed two main factors: 1) reform-mindedness, creativity, emphasizing democracy, and verbal fluency, and 2) acceptance of politics, dominance, affectiveness, and rejecting of educational research. These factors seem to polarize along the dimensions expressivity - instrumentality and individual - social.

There are only a few variables which distinguish the groups of subjects from each other: preserving - reforming, political - apolitical, and creativity - traditionality.

The authors argued that behind the presented opinions which are based on everyday experience there are broad structures of thought, emanating from values and ideals, and partly influenced by the surrounding society and culture. Practical educators should clarify for themselves on which points on dimensions of aims opinions of their own are located. This suggestion reveals clearly that the authors did not consider it possible to use the consensus principle in determining educational aims.

"The Educational Goals Project", sponsored by the Ministry of Education, (Kari et al. 1978; Sauvala et al. 1979; Kari & Sauvala 1980; Sauvala & Kari 1981; Kari & Sauvala 1982; Sauvala 1983) had as its main purpose to investigate whether it is possible to construct a system of educational aims which might be accepted by the great majority of Finnish educators. The present state of educational aims as manifested in actual behavior as well as the ideal state of these aims were the targets of this project. Also differences in educational values and aims between various geographic areas and different age groups were investigated.

The list of aims which was rated by thousands of subjects (teachers, students in schools of general education and in vocational education, and also parents) was constructed in an eclectic way by using educational literature and interviewing eminent representatives of education and other cultural fields as well as samples of teachers, student teachers and students. The items on the produced list (N = 137) were classified as actions, traits, and values of a "good person" or "good citizen".

The subjects had to report by means of questionnaires
1) how frequently they had carried out corresponding deeds or revealed such traits, and
2) how well the values and attitudes on the list represented their own values and attitudes. The subjects were also asked to rate whether the items described deeds, traits, values and attitudes of a "good citizen" or an "ideal student".

Kari and Sauvala claimed that because the aims were selected by taking into account the opinions of the educational expertise as well as of different population groups, the final list of aims is representative for the Finnish society in its totality. When the different subject groups had carried out the ratings item by item, the level and uniformity of acceptance could be determined for each aim. According to the authors, a certain level of unanimity is needed for prescribing an aim to be pursued throughout the school system.

The main weakness of this project lies in precisely that idea of "consensus" as a basis for determining educational aims for the school system. In Finland, as in any Western country, no uniform view about values and norms exists. Different social groups and even individuals have different ideas and beliefs in this respect. In trying to find out what the central issues are with regard to educational aims, no results can be achieved in a pluralistic society by measuring the support for single items on a list of aims, because it is the totality of aims which has any meaning for the personal conviction.

Takala (1978, 425) has rightly pointed out that the essential task for the research on aims is to clarify whether there exists individuals and groups engaged to certain human values and purposes, who are ready to support their realization.

The comparisons carried out by Kari and Sauvala with regard to

the acceptance of various aims within different regions of Finland and between age groups, in which the authors have been able to present some interesting results, will not be considered here.

From the methodological point of view it is important that these authors have not been satisfied with only determining and describing the aims. They have also tried to investigate to what extent these aims have been realized. This has been carried out by using the studets' information about their actual behavior and comparing it with how the aims have been accepted by the teachers.

Supposing that a subject is able to rate honestly to what extent certain aims have been attained, Kari and Sauvala have compared the ratings carried out by the students with those of their teachers. The authors interpreted the fact that the students' rating of their own behavior correspond with the opinions of the teachers concerning these aims, as an indication that there exists a relation of cause and effect between these two phenomena. Even if they did not claim that this interdependence between student behavior and teacher's views is a simple one, a critical remark is due here.

It has by no means been demonstrated that the teachers, in accepting certain aims, also in their daily work would strive at the realization of these aims. On the contrary, as will be shown later on, the facts available seem to indicate that the acceptance of aims, especially concerning single aims, is not connected with the presence of these aims in the teacher's thinking when he is planning his instruction and in the implementation of these plans.

So, even if is of interest to know how students at various levels and in various forms of schooling react to questions

about their actual and ideal behavior, no reliable information about the relationships between the opinions of a teacher and the behavior of his students can be attained through such comparisons.

It should lastly be mentioned that the most acceptable aims for the comprehensive school and the upper secondary school were found to be as follows (Sauvala 1983, 134):

teachers (N = 503)	parents (N = 462)
1. honesty	1. honesty
2. justice	2. reliability
3. reliability	3. justice
4. assuming responsibility	4. trust between parents & children
5. responsibility for one's own actions	5. assuming responsibility
6. equanimity	6. responsibility for ones own's actions
7. appreciation for peace	7. avoidance of drugs
8. avoidance of drugs	8. appreciation for peace

Of these aims, however, only a part were put on the list of educational aims included in the proposition for the new school law (cf. above p. 8).

Gunilla Svingby (1979) has investigated the question, how educational aims prescribed in the Swedish Curriculum for the Comprehensive School of 1969 are ranked by the teachers, and also the question what, according to them, the chances were of realizing them in practice. The official aims were found to be fully acceptable by 70 to 90 percent of the teachers but, on the other hand, rated unevenly attainable.

Svingby ranked eight of these aims in terms of differences

between ratings (scale 1 to 5) of the aim as such and its attainability (Op.cit., 66):

	differences between means of ratings
all-round development of the student's capabilities	2.38
development of the student's emotional life	2.00
sense of justice, honesty, etc.	1.83
planning and implementing work tasks	1.80
operating in accordance with democratic principles	1.74
phantasy and spontaneous creativity	1.72
contacts with art, literature, etc.	1.59
knowledge and skills within central school subjects	.04

The figures above indicate that the aims in affective and social areas are, according to the teachers, considered difficult to realize in spite the fact that they are rated as important.

As a member of the "Research Project on Educational Aims" (cf. pp. 18-20) Iskala has done research on teacher opinion of educational aims and different thought processes in classroom verbal interaction and, what is of interest at present, analyzed recordings of those processes (Iskala 1974; 1981). Preferences concerning aims and choices regarding instructional thought processes were described on the basis of questionnaires and compared with each other and also with empirical data of verbal interaction.

The general aims rated by the teachers were from the study of Niskanen (1973), the special (subjectbound) aims from the Comprehensive School Curriculum (1970), and descriptions of different instructional thought processes (regarding teaching of religion, literature, and ethics) were carried out by using the taxonomy of Aschner and Gallagher (1965). The purpose was to determine the teachers' preferences with regard to differ-

ent thought processes, clarify the structure of these preferences and study their relationship to the opinions about educational aims. At the empirical level, recorded cognitive processes in classroom discussions were compared with the above-mentioned preferences and opinions.

Iskala has assumed that the system of aims a teacher has adopted has been built up during his personal history and in social interaction, and that this system can be described as a hierarchical scheme structure which explains his separate decisions (1981, 82-91). Despite of this Iskala has concluded that the teacher's cognitive structure is sufficiently reflected in the structure of his opinions concerning the aims as well as in his teaching behavior. Iskala also supposes that the factors extracted from the interactive processes differentiate between the aims included in a hierarchical model. Preferences on externally offered aims do not, however, necessarily reflect what a teacher in reality is striving for.

The results indicate not very strong correspondences on the one hand between the teacher's opinions about general and specific aims and his preferences regarding thought processes and, on the other hand, between these and observational data (1981, 96-98). The fact that direct inquiry of the teacher's personal beliefs and his view of life has in the study been substituted by externally defined and general constructions, has seemingly resulted in diffuse, unconvincing relationships.

3.2 Terms in Which Aims Are Expressed and Mediated to the Teachers

In 1970 the Comprehensive School Curriculum Committee tried to express the educational aims in behavioral terms but did not wholly succeed. Only a part of the aims could be defined in a

concrete, behavioral form, most of the aims being left to be presented in terms of the subject-matter (Takala 1970; Kansanen 1971a; Hakkarainen 1971a). It has already been mentioned that Hakkarainen has carried out a transformation of all the aims presented by this committee into behavioral ones in order to get rid of a way of defining he regarded as a weakness. The same trend toward behavioral aims appears also in investigations conducted by Niskanen as well as by Kari and Sauvala.

Using behavioral terms in the operationalization of educational aims has, indeed, been recommended by many positivistic researchers. On the other hand, such a transformation leads to several difficulties about which a lively debate has been going on (Kansanen 1972; Takala 1978, 425).

There is no need to here review this debate (cf. Kansanen 1972, 21-26). Denoting a certain student behavior which is aimed at by the term "behavioral aim" is delusive, because also certain teacher behavior as well as the behavior of the whole class can be set as a "behavioral aim". The fact is that the term "behavioral aim" in a narrow meaning has its origin in efforts to define the aims in terms of intended and measurable (mainly cognitive) outcomes vis-à-vis the student. But with regard to the ethical and social aims it seems more appropriate to express them in terms concerning the behavior of the teacher and his students, also of the behavior of the class community, instead of in terms of the behavior of an individual student (Koskenniemi 1982, 250-251).

Educational aims can, however, also be defined in other terms than in those of behaviors of the student, the teacher, or the whole class. In the "Curriculum for Modern Living" (Stratemeyer et al. 1947) situations of everyday living have not only taken place of the subjects but constitute de facto a system of educational aims. This system comprises three main cat-

egories of situations: 1) those calling for growth in individual capacities, 2) those calling for growth in social participation, and 3) those calling for growth in the ability to deal with environmental factors and forces. Single situations (N = 84) represent concrete aims derived from the persistent and recurring aspects of life situations (Op.cit., 100): "The situations of everyday living reside in five major aspects of human life - in the home, as a member of family; in the community, as a participant in civic and social activities; in work, as a member of an occupational group; in leisure time; and in spiritual activities. --- From these five sources come the problems and situations which are actually faced by learners and with which the school curriculum must be concerned."

There is, however, no actual difference between an aim in terms of a situation in which the students are expected to react in a certain way, and an aim expressed in terms concerning the behavior of the students. The real difference between these two ways of defining educational aims lies in the fact that situations can hardly be prescribed as aims by a central authority because such situations only arise on the basis of experience and life of a particular class community, whereas expected behaviors as such can always be difined in general terms.

Takala has characterized (1978, 425) two different ways in setting aims as follows: 1) the operational way according to which setting aims is an external procedure, and various aims are used in order to get the students to change their behavior in an expected direction, and 2) the global way according to which it is essential that the aims are accepted and pursued by the students. In the latter case the long-term aims the individual is striving at are of particular importance. In the former case the development of short-term habits is preferred.

Expressing aims in behavioral terms reflects an operational strategy in education, which is also connected with the belief that aims should be restricted to observable issues. In a global strategy also the processes through which the aims are attained are considered important.

Takala has pointed out that the value of aims concerning restricted units of knowledge and skills is usually unanimously accepted. The learning processes needed for achieving results are mostly known and can be used in the construction of learning materials which support the teacher in steering the instructional process. On the other hand, there are educational aims concerning more globally the development of personality, a process substantially dependent on the student, and also unique. Here, e.g., when the student has to create a personal view of life, behavioral aims cannot be used at all.

For or against behavioral aims is consequently a question which cannot be answered on the basis of an "either - or", neither is it a merely technical issue. This question is deeply connected with the philosophical question of what kind of personalities are expected to develop as a result of schooling.

Efforts to determine educational aims in precise terms of expected student behavior have overshadowed another question, i.e., how should these aims be made familiar to the teachers. This question concerns of course all stated aims, not only the ones expressed in behavioral terms. This issue has been the target of several investigations carried out by Kansanen (1971a, b, c; 1972; 1973a, b; 1976; 1979).

In order to elucidate how educational aims should be made known to the teachers, Kansanen has focused on the general aims in the affective area as they are presented in the

Curriculum for the Comprehensive School of 1970. The statements concerning these aims, as well individual as social, have been classified according to their level of abstraction. These statements have then been rated by students of education without teaching experience, by student teachers, and in-service teachers on 15 scales using the semantic differential and also with regard to clarity, importance, and chance of materializing (Kansanen 1971a, b).

The rating structure was found to vary according to the amount of schooling and teaching experience. Ratings carried out by competent teachers were more diffuse than those made by subjects without or with minimal experience in teaching, i.e., the clearness of rating decreased with increased schooling and practice. The same relationship had been revealed in an earlier Finnish follow-up study of young elementary school teachers (Koskenniemi et al. 1965, 384-360): Educational aims became more problematic in the third in-service year along with increased experience, especially for teachers with a high mark in teaching ability. In most cases the young teachers who were the subjects in this study did not possess conscious aims which they would pursue in practice. However, at the time this study was carried out there did not exist any curricular document with educational aims defined in detail like in that of 1970.

Kansanen has also found out that when the aims were expressed in terms of student behavior, concretization of the aims was gained with the result that the rated clearness increased. Value and familiarity were, however, not increased in this way.

According to Gunilla Svingby (1979), the Swedish teachers experience a breach between officially stated educational aims and the reality of school life. There is unanimity with regard

to aims expressed in abstract terms, but if more precise and concrete statements concerning the purpose of schooling are presented the teachers' opinions differ. Aims expressed in abstract terms, Svingby has argued, represent educational ideology or policy with necessarily no connections with a teacher's own activity in his class.

Instead of mediating educational aims directly to the teachers by statements in law text or in administrative documents, also indirect ways are used for this end. It is a well-known fact that teachers seldom and irregularly make use of such documents in their daily work. Therefore it has been supposed that learning materials could be better and more effective means for making educational aims known.

Investigations carried out in Finland and Sweden seem, however, indicate that the aims appearing in such materials usually are not in accord with those presented officially or that they do not support the implementation of stated aims (Gustafsson 1980; Koskenniemi & Komulainen 1982, 18-20). In addition, incorporating affective aims in learning materials is very difficult because these aims are expressed in the curriculum at a level of minimal specificity (Kansanen 1972, 37-38). How educational aims are mediated to teachers depends, lastly, on how the function of instruction is conceived by the policy-makers. Aims expressed in behavioral terms and those defined in terms of interactive processes are based on quite different views about the nature and ultimate purpose of instructional activity (Kansanen 1976).

PART TWO: EDUCATIONAL AIMS AT THE CLASSROOM LEVEL

CHAPTER 4: Are Educational Aims Necessary in the Classrooms?

The modern curriculum is, according to Lundgren (1979, 84-89), a rational construct which is based on selecting and organizing political values, knowledge, and experiences important and useful for the society, besides which also individual interests are considered. In curriculum planning much weight is given to stating educational aims which reflect the purpose of the school policy and which are believed to direct the development of the students in an expected way.

Stephens (1960; 1965) has, however, argued that along with these rational factors the teacher should feel free to indulge in the more primitive tendencies which play a tremendous part in teaching. According to his theory schooling would be much more likely to flourish if the ubiquitous forces responsible for it were deeprooted and primitive and capable of operating in the absence of any great amount of insight and intelligence. Those forces include, according to Stephens, tendencies that result in playful, manipulative behavior, and unpremeditated communicating tendencies.

"In managing the complex teaching process, the teacher does not always have to manipulate, in a deliberative and conscious fashion. On the contrary, he should put himself in a situation in which teaching is in order, let himself go, and, by virtue of the spontaneous urges to be found within him, some teaching will probably take place" (Stephens 1965, 436-438).

Stephens has admitted that in decisions about teaching much weight is to be given to rational considerations such as purposes of education and the relative importance of this or that

amphasis. Neither has he clearly presented his opinion about the origin of the "spontaneous forces" nor about their frequency or how uniform they are. However, it seems evident that these "forces" represent some kind of purposefulness, even at the subconscious level of mind.

Helena Stellwag (1964) has dealt with this question in a way that completes the ideas of Stephens. Her starting point was that the question concerning values cannot be avoided by defining the purpose of schooling in so general terms that all ideological groups would accept it. Every teacher has a view of his own on the aims of education, which differs at least to some extent from the officially stated aims as well as from those adopted by his colleagues.

The educational philosophy embraced by a teacher, the position he takes with regard to values, is in many cases only weakly conscious or even subconscious, but is reflected in how the teacher operates in practice. Stellwag has denoted this entity with the term "didaxis" and claimed that it has a certain impact on the instructional process despite the fact that the "didaxis" doesn't indicate that the teacher would perceive the purpose of schooling in terms of detailed aims.

The concept of teaching presupposes an intention concerning the student's development toward certain direction to be included in the teacher's behavior. This intention, or purpose, can be revealed in different ways (Koskenniemi 1971, 36-37):
1) by defining the purpose beforehand in detail and taking this definition into account in planning,
2) by defining the purpose in broad terms only and implementing it according to occurring situations without support of a plan made in advance, or
3) by setting and implementing the purpose without conscious analyzing and advance planning, e.g., by means of adopting

a role or way of living which is in harmony with that purpose.

Kansanen (1976) has distinguished between the concepts of "purposefulness" and "purposiveness" in teacher behavior. According to him, "purposefulness" is a general characteristic pertained to teaching as a profession. He has pointed out that in order to behave "purposively" the teacher has to know the aims stated in the official curriculum and be capable of interpreting and internalizing these aims which, of course, must be expressed unambiguously. If these conditions are not met, Kansanen argued, the teaching process remains at a quasi-teleological level. This is the case when teaching is guided by learning materials. Even if these are constructed according to the stated aims the teacher has no need to internalize these aims nor to make conscious decisions in line with them.

However, is only the behavior mentioned by Kansanen to be regarded as a condition of "purposiveness"? Also such "purposiveness" which is based on personal view of life and conviction should be classified into the same category.

Separating the concepts "purposefulness" and "purposiveness" from each other does not imply that there would be differences with regard to the efficiency between corresponding behaviors. That our knowledge in these matters is unsatisfactory is regrettable. The nature and occurrence of "spontaneuous forces" and "didaxis" have been investigated to a very little extent. If such phenomena do exist more frequently than sporadically and if they are found to be important factors in teaching, the role of educational aims, especially the stated aims, should be reconsidered.

A more general question is, to what extent the teachers, in planning their teaching and in implementing these plans, are aware of educational aims, irrespective of their origin, and

make use of them in a conscious way. The next chapter deals with this problem.

Chapter 5: The Role of Aims in Preinteractive and Interactive Teacher Behavior

The Finnish follow-up study mentioned above (p. 31) dealt also with educational aims. However, the young elementary school teachers who were the subjects of this study had, for determining the aims, instead of a curriculum with detailed definitions of aims only a textbook in didactics as support in these matters. Also the setting and implementation of aims had been dealt with in a minimal extent in their theoretical and practical studies.

It was expected that in case young techers would report that their aims had taken shape on a personal basis, these aims would be mostly schematic and deficiently structured. In order to find out whether these young persons possessed, in their third in-service year, conscious and relatively permanent educational aims that they were pursuing in practice and, if they did so, what the aims were like, interviews and observations were carried out.

The structuring of the aims as described by the young teachers was found to be at a low level. In addition, in practice only about one-third of the subjects behaved in a manner revealing a definite endeavour to take certain aims into account on a personal basis (Koskenniemi et al. 1965, 344-360).

In investigations into the instructional process (DPA Helsinki) carried out between 1967 and 1982, also educational aims as perceived by teachers and students were dealt with (for an overview, cf. Komulainen & Kansanen 1981, 1-38). Because in-

struction was considered, per definitionem, to be a purposive process, the DPA taxonomy included the aspect "goal-related behavior".

As a part of these investigations into the intentionality of the instructional process, six comprehensive school teachers, taking part in the DPA Helsinki Project, were interviewed about their ways of thinking during the preinteractive phase of teaching. Some questions were also asked concerning the teachers' implicit theories on education and philosophical principles. The findings of the latter issue will be dealt with in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 presents results concerning joint planning which was arranged as a means to produce intentionality in the teachers as well as in the students.

The main objective of the teacher interviews was to find out what role the curriculum and the stated educational aims occupied in their daily work and how well the official aims had been internalized by the teachers.

One of the clearest findings was that the teachers did not think on the basis of aims. None of them ever mentioned the aims as guidelines in their thinking. This may, perhaps, have been partly influenced by the different terminology used by the teachers and researchers. When, e.g., the teachers were discussing pedagogical principles the aims may have been at the back of their mind. Anyway, the teachers were aware of the curriculum and the aims presented in it only indirectly through the learning material, which reflects the official aims incompletely and even incorrectly (Kansanen 1981, 34-36; cf. also Koskenniemi & Komulainen 1982).

In the '60s and '70s a number of investigations about teacher thinking have been carried out with results quite similar to the Finnish ones. Jackson (1962) has been one of the first to

criticize the rational model of teacher thinking, according to which the planning begins with stating the aims after which come the selection of content, organization of teaching activities, and evaluation. He has insisted that teachers first choose the teaching activities and do not think on the basis of educational aims. This claim has been affirmed by several investigations on teacher thinking during the preinteractive phase of thinking.

According to investigations carried out by Zahorik (1975), Peterson and Clark (1978), Peterson, Marx and Clark (1978), Yinger (1978), and Clark and Yinger (1977) - reviewed by Kansanen (1981, 33-34) - a great majority of decisions the teacher made prior to the teaching focused on the content and, secondarily, on the instructional activities. Despite the fact that the subjects in one of these investigations had got the learning material and a list of aims before the planning took place, aims were included in the smallest proportion of issues considered by the subjects. Considering the fact that for some teachers also personal aims guided the planning, the role of stated aims must be regarded as minimal.

Also the results obtained by Gunilla Svingby (1979, 96-107) point in the same direction. She found that with regard to the practical class activity of the teacher, the general educational aims have much less effect than the personal opinions of the teacher. Moreover, administrative regulations seemed to have much more influence on school life than the system of stated aims.

I have labelled as "didactical thinking" that part of teacher activity which includes an analysis of the instructional situation and the various factors contributing to it, and leads to the selection of one of the alternative solutions at hand (Koskenniemi 1971, 154).

To what extent such considerations have to be rational is a question open to considerable dispute. The existence of rationality of teacher behavior depends, according to Macmillan and McClelland (1968), on the possible arguments for this behavior. There is, however, no need to accentuate this qualification if the purpose of instruction has, even indirectly, been accepted by the teacher with the result that his role is in accordance with that purpose (Koskenniemi 1971, 36-37).

It seems that not only the official aims but also the aims emerging on the basis of personal values and convictions of the teacher play a minor role in the teacher's thinking when he is preparing for teaching. We do not know whether this is the case during the interactive situations in the class, too, but that is probable.

Aims are, however, not irreplacable for guiding teacher behavior. When a teacher selects certain methods to be used in content with a purpose of instruction accepted by him, he also, at the same time, de facto decides to what end he is striving because alternative ways of arranging instructional situations, i.e. methods, are in close connection with different educational aims.

In order to elucidate what the influence of this fact is, i.e., that teachers think more in terms of contents, possibilities of their students, and ways of teaching than in terms of aims, we need information, first, about the origins of teacher aims and, second, how the intentions of school policy can better than at present be mediated to the teachers.

Chapter 6: Origins of the Teachers' Aims

Knowledge about the teacher's opinions on officially stated or other externally presented educational aims is, despite the fact that there are numerous investigations aimed at this problem area, insufficient as long as the other part of this relation, the basic views of the particular teacher are not satisfactorily known. Research on this issue as a target has up to now been scarce.

The interviews with the six teachers who participated in the DPA Helsinki Project (cf. p. 37) proved that not one of them had a clear, deliberate and systematic view of educational philosophy. A few of them reported, however, that they had to some extent considered background problems of education. In cases in which a teacher had actually had thoughts about educational aims it had been carried out either in personal terms or in abstract terms against the background of the purpose of education in general (Kansanen 1979).

In their thorough research Anders and Marie-Louise Törnvall (1982; 1982) have analyzed relationships between the basic views of forty intermediate level teachers, and the aims and guidelines prescribed by the Swedish Curriculum for the Comprehensive School of 1969. The data they used were provided by depth interviews and presenting a list of statements concerning the ideology or philosophy of life.

The basis philosophy included in the part of the official curriculum concerning aims and guidelines (sometimes nicknamed as the "poetical part" of this document) as well as that of the subjects were divided in a general basic view and a basic pedagogical outlook. Included in the general basic view were philosophical, ideological views, and a view of society. The view of the curriculum, the view of the parents, the view of

the teacher, the view of knowledge, and the view of school comprised the basic pedagogical view.

With the aid of the teachers' statements on their general basic view the subjects were, on the basis of their philosophical and ideological views and in respect to the classical ideologies, grouped into ten categories from socialists to pragmatists. On the other hand, the section of aims and guidelines in the curriculum was analyzed. Its leading idea was found in the concept of solidarity. The Social Democratic Party had put solidarity forward as a guarantee for equality, and solidarity as an aim was built upon the equality of human dignity. The design and development of a democratic school was, in the final analysis, identified as a question of human solidarity (A. Törnvall 1982, 110, 163).

On the basis of his data A. Törnvall was able to distinguish between teachers who were positive to the basic philosophy expressed in the official curriculum (N = 5), those who were basically negative toward it (N = 24) and, finally, an undecided middle group (N = 11).

A positive attitude to the official basic philosophy was evidenced by a minority of teachers influenced by Socialism, especially the Christian socialists. Concern for the student in general, and for the weak student and the value of the individual in particular, was found to be an important factor here. This concern involved a desire to lead the students ideologically on the right path. For this reason these teachers had a negative attitude to pluralism in society.

The majority of teachers criticized the aims included in the curriculum as unrealistic, too theoretical, and unrealizable. E.g., their attitude toward local solidarity was to a great extent more positive than toward a global one. The curricular

aims also required, according to this group, far too much from the teachers.

Data collected by A. Törnvall are, however, not quite convincing. E.g., the answers to the question "Does the curriculum occupy any role for you?" disclose that some subjects' knowledge of this document was insufficient ('I have not read it' or 'I have no apprehension of its content') or superficial ('Statements in the curriculum are of a very general nature') (Op.cit., 132).

A. Törnvall has claimed that the teachers move in a field on tension between two poles, ideology and professional code. A teacher's position in this field is important for his attitudes to the curriculum. The professional code s in itself negative in relation to the curriculum since this code focuses on the teacher's profession, while the ideology centres around the idea, the vision.

In many cases a teacher did not have any total ideology (as the Socialists and Christians do). A. Törnvall has argued that when the view of life is only partial, the teacher is instead of the philosophy dominated by the professional code. This is also a result of the fact that instruction in general has a neutral character and that discussions about values occur to only a very limited extent.

According to A. Törnvall there exists, in addition to the ideology and the professional code, also an "employee factor" which consists of elements that govern the teacher as an employee: external central pressures from the employer and the school authorities as expressed in the instructions the teacher must follow to carry out various duties. The employee code is affected, i.a., by the following circumstances:

- the rights of teachers have been gradually weakened
- curricular instructions have been substituted by textbooks
- the teachers' union has not given sufficient support to the right of teachers to experience a mentally satisfying working environment.

Marie-Louise Törnvall (1982) has operated with the same subjects and by using the same methods as her brother Anders. Her main aim was to determine to what extent holding a definite basic philosophy on the part of the teachers can have a dominating influence on their ideas regarding the internationalization of education, which was one of the central issues in the official curriculum of 1969. She has been particularly concerned with the conditions given in the curriculum regarding international issues, and has compared them with the basic philosophy and the professional code of the teachers.

The results obtained indicate that the teachers dealt with international issues only partly in accordance with the instructions in the curriculum. These issues seem to have a low priority in school work and were included in the instruction only when they were a part of the syllabus of the subject, when they were met with in the textbook, when they formed a part in covering current events, or when they were taken up on special occasions. They did not have the pervading character which the curriculum intended them to have.

The teachers spoke of understanding as an aim of instruction but this meant only the communication of knowledge without the elements of social education intended in the curriculum. "They say 'yes' to the goals of the curriculum but indirectly mean 'no'". All this involved strategies which can be regarded as a traditional pattern in the school. "Implementation of the instruction with its high-flying goals in view without the

requisite special knowledge and special resources earmarked for the purpose against the outlook implied in one's own basic philosophy and contrary to the professional tradition, is in reality doomed to failure" (Op.cit., 251).

It is to be admitted that the research into "basic views" of the teachers conducted by A. and Marie-Louise Törnvall has resulted in new knowledge in this important but difficult area. These investigations have, however, some weaknesses. One of these is that, according to H. and S. Kreitter (1967, cited by A Törnvall), "though people may be convinced of the importance of the goal, this does not in any way mean that they would act for its attainment", i.e., the target of the research has been restricted to intentions, and actual behavior has not been recorded.

Another weakness, very common for investigations concerning educational aims, is that the influence of the life history and schooling on formation of the aims has not been considered. Marie-Louise Törnvall (1982, 71-72) has mentioned such a possibility but has not presented any data in this respect.

A third aspect which is absent in these investigations is the fact that a teacher's position in relation to official aims may also be influenced by the views among the colleagues as well as by local expectations with regard to the purpose of education. Very little is known about such sources of influence.

That local views on aims of schooling vary is an indisputable fact, as well as that the local role expectations toward the teacher in various areas of life (family, relations to other people, economics, politics, and religion) more often than not differ from those directed toward any other member of the community (Koskenniemi et al. 1965, 281-299). These differences

seem to have some kind of connection with the degree of the teacher's satisfaction in service. If dissatisfaction really has had its roots in differences regarding general views on ways of life, it is not quite impossible that they also have influenced the differences about the educational aims. Unfortunately no research findings are available with regard to this issue.

In a theoretical survey about values as determinants of the aims, Sirkka Hirsjärvi (1975) has claimed that educational aims are, at least to some extent, derived from values learned by the teacher. The derivation of aims from the values, defined as abstractions the realization of which is pursued, is according to her a very complicated process especially because the values can be interpreted in many ways. In addition, the values can be regarded only as some kind of frames within which the selection of aims occurs, i.e., aim cannot be derived from a certain value.

In all investigations carried out in the Western school world a contrast between officially prescribed educational aims and the teacher's views about the purpose of instruction has been found. How is this antithesis to be solved?

If a Kilpatrickian curriculum is used, the setting of aims is closely connected with themes or projects which are the basis of the teaching-learning process. The aims are set through decisions made jointly by the teacher and his class. Kilpatrick has not, however, elaborated how a teacher, if he is subject to a centrally administered and atomistic model curriculum, would be able to create a more global set of aims.

Malinen (1978; 1983, 37-39) who has dealt with the problem of how to set aims and evaluate their attainment so that they support the harmonious realization of objectives, has argued

that the aims prescribed by society will comprise separate issues whereas the aims at the class level have to be integrated to apply to individuals.

When the comprehensive school system was introduced in Finland the policy-makers emphasized that the activities of the school should be guided by stated aims. This has, however, not been achieved within the present administrative system. Malinen has claimed that the teachers can, in principle, quite freely define their educational aims but they do not know how to make use of this freedom. Neither is that easy because the criteria for the legitimation of teaching are that the officially approved textbooks are used and traditional practices are observed.

In order to realize integration in their own planning the teachers should, according to Malinen, be able to set aims by integrating the different components of the curriculum and interpret them to suit the situation. This task, however, is a very demanding one.

CHAPTER 7: The Role of the Class Community in Setting of Aims

The educational philosophy the teacher has made his own and the aims internalized by him do not guarantee the purposiveness of the instructional processes in his class. Without contributions by and cooperation with the students, the purpose and the aims of instruction cannot be fully attained.

During investigations into the instructional process (DPA Helsinki) also the aims conceived by students and teachers were elucidated (cf. p. 37). The taxonomy for describing instructional periods included among its eight aspects one labelled "goal-related behavior". It was considered that the instruc-

tional process can be fully understood only if its purposiveness is taken into account. The intentions underlying daily work in the classroom were therefore seen as variables of importance. Aims drawn up by the teacher and agreed upon by his students or, in the ideal situation, decided jointly by both can be regarded as one of the prerequisites for effective study.

"Goal-related behavior" has in the DPA Helsinki investigations been operationalized partly by interviewing the teachers about their pre-interactive planning activity (Komulainen & Kansanen 1981, 2), partly by arranging joint planning situations during which the teacher discussed with the students what to learn, and how and why to study (Op.cit., 12-14), and partly by using a stimulated recall technique for finding out to what extent the student behavior reflects purposiveness during the lessons (Koskenniemi & Holopainen 1973).

One of the essential aspects of the instructional process is that it aims at the development of the student's personality in accordance with educational aims. The intentionality of the instructional processes means the way these aims are recognized, understood and internalized by the teacher as well as by the students. To guarantee intentionality, joint planning was carried out during the interactive phase of the instructional process.

Educational aims are included in the official curriculum, and it is the task of the teacher to operationalize them and to plan the instruction according to them. In order to do this the teacher has to know these aims and to make his decisions in agreement with them. On the other hand, also personal aims derived from the teacher's basic view can be included in coordinating the aims.

The intentionality of the students is related to motivation, but they are expected to internalize the aims with the help of the teacher (Komulainen & Kansanen 1981, 8-10).

The joint planning was arranged in the 4th-grade classes as follows (for details, cf. Uusikylä 1976). A preliminary plan was made by the teacher and the task of the students was to complete this plan: to decide in detail about the contents and, especially, about the activity forms to be used. Every student then got the complete plan for the next week in order to make preparations for the realization of this plan.

In the beginning the teachers had some difficulties in joint planning because they were not given any detailed instructions for it. It would certainly have been safer to depend on traditional methods familiar to them. However, the teachers admitted afterwards that it had been a useful experience to be compelled to plan independently with the students.

The students, on the other hand, took the joint planning very naturally. They were asked on three occasions about opinions of this way to study. Attitudes toward joint planning were positive and remained so during the whole year. As many as 83-87 percent agreed with such statements as "joint planning is a pleasant thing", "it makes one understand many things better" and "it is for us more pleasant to prepare for lessons when they have been planned together". Only 13 percent of the students regarded joint planning as difficult and 11 percent as useless. The teachers reported that the students had become more spontaneuous, critical, and independent during the experiment.

Joint planning was intended to give all students a chance to influence their studies. This purpose was, however, achieved poorly. An analysis of the planning processes revealed that

the verbal participation was distributed very unevenly among the students. The most active quarter used as much as 67 - 86 percent of the student moves while the most passive quarter resigned itself to 1 - 4 percent of those moves. In addition, the boys were quite dominant in planning.

Questionnaires and systematic observation can, however, be regarded as superficial means in revealing intentionality, especially in students. Other means were therefore used. After a school day preceded by joint planning, an evaluative discussion was arranged in order to find out whether any goal-related behavior had remained in the students. If so, it might be concluded that corresponding behavior had existed also during the instructional situation proper. This conclusion was then checked by means of a stimulated recall technique, invented by Bloom and used by Bales and Slater, by playing back the videotape recorded during the lesson in ten-minute intervals and asking the students to fill a questionnaire concerning the performance of jointly decided tasks (Koskenniemi & Holopainen 1973, 5-7). The videotapes were viewed also by two experts who rank-ordered the students according to the same criteria and rated the planfulness and tenacity at work.

It was found that the students had a high consensus when ranking each other regarding different aspects of task-related behavior. Also the rankings of the students and experts were very similar and stable. Different aspects of behavior could not, however, be distinguished from each other.

That the students and experts perceived the intentionality in study behavior very similarly seems to indicate that the students were aware of the jointly decided plan and that at least many of them were trying to follow it. In addition, the goal-related behavior of the students remained quite stable from the beginning to the end of the lesson. However, it seems that

such task-related behavior is rather undifferentiated at the 4th-grade level, because of which no detailed information can be attained by the stimulated recall method. It is also possible that the role differentiation which characterizes group-work during which the experiment was carried out has overshadowed the aims decided upon.

EPILOGUE: CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Educational aims defined by political powers and prescribed either in a law text or in an official curriculum for observance or guidance in schools, reflect the purpose of education the policy-makers have adopted. If the school administration is decentralized, the legislation comprises only the determination of aims, and in case the schools are centrally administered the presentation of aims is included in the official curriculum. In the latter case it is evidently easier to present educational aims within a global frame instead as a list of single aims.

Irrespective of in what kind of document educational aims are stated, certain conditions seem to have to be fulfilled with regard to how these aims are presented in order to gain an impact on the instruction at the class level:

first, building a system of educational aims should be based on the consensus principle regarding only the most general issues aimed at within the national education. As regards the detailed aims and objectives, freedom should be left for alternative solutions in which the preference of single aims can vary according to the teacher's convictions and local circumstances,

second, in an official document an aim should, depending of its nature be expressed in terms of the behavior of the individual student or teacher or group as well as in terms of the process or the situation expected to promote attainment of the aim in question,

third, effective information about the role and meaning of stated as well as personal aims, presupposes systematic pre-

service and in-service schooling in order to raise the level of intentionality and purposiveness in the teachers.

The last of these suggestions is derived from the indisputable fact that in traditional instruction aims have only a minor impact on teachers' thinking despite the fact that they mostly have positive attitudes toward stated aims, especially the general and more abstract ones. It should, however, be taken into account that aims as such are not irreplacable. A stand is taken with regard to the intentions of instruction also in selecting between various teaching methods and by observing a "professional code". The role of the aims should therefore not be exaggerated.

A prerequisite for more purposive instructional situations is that the teacher is capable and has the right to modify the stated aims and also to set aims of his own on the basis of his personal beliefs and convictions. The concept of an "aim" is consequently to be understood in the widest meaning: it should also denote the intentions included in various methods and, besides behavioral aims, also situations intended to arouse certain expected behavior.

And, last but not least, the intentionality of the students should be activated by having them take part in deciding what their studies are aimed at. Experiences attained by practising joint planning of instruction suggest that there is one of the possible means for pursuing intentionality that covers the whole class.

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